The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 3, 1874.

The Week.

THE Evening Post has recently been making one of those journalistic suggestions which give rise to an amount of discussion inversely proportionate to the probability of their practical adoption. The Post thinks that the next Congress ought to be called together immediately after the close of the present session, on the ground that otherwise there will be no means of knowing what the Democrats intend to do with the country till a year from now. In the early days of the Republic, the Post says, when travelling was difficult and communication between distant parts of the United States was slow, there was some reason why, on the election of a new Congress, a considerable interval should have been given to the newly-elected Congressmen to wind up their affairs, put their houses in order, and make plans for the approaching campaign at Washington. Now all this is changed. Even the Californian can get to Washington in a week; it is so easy to travel and telegraph back and forth that he need not wind up his business or put his house in order at all; while, if we may add a suggestion of our own. the statesmen of our generation do not require any time for mental preparation for the winter's campaign, for their mental calibre and acquirements are so different from those of their earlier predecessors that they are about as well fitted for debate and legislation at one time as another. Nevertheless, we suppose no one seriously believes that the Republicans will pass an act this winter calling the Democrats together in March, and on the whole we are inclined to think that the delay between the end of the present Congress and the meeting of the next will prove a salutary obstacle to much needless and partisan activity.

Indeed, evidence continues to accumulate from week to week that it is a fortunate thing, not only for the Democrats, but for the public too, that the machinery of the Government does not allow them to make an immediate use of their majority in the House of Representatives. Almost every paper that we see contains some new speech of some Democratic chieftain, warning his followers that they must not consider the recent victories as conclusive; that they are themselves in almost as much danger as the Republicans; and that if they expect to grasp the prize of the Presidency in 1876, they will only be able to do it by the display of much political virtue. Besides this, we believe that the conservative restrictions on the tremendous force of public opinion, reinforced as it now is in this country by universal suffrage, are almost in every case good. We should be sorry to see the Government so arranged that every change of public opinion should be at once reflected at Washington, because every step taken in this direction is one more step in the downward path which we began thirty years ago in most of the States, by making officers universally elective, at Washington by introducing rotation in office, and which, if continued, can only end in transforming a conservative representative government into a highly-organized popular tyranny. It is a noticeable fact that the only occasion on which Congress ever has fixed the time for the meeting of a new body of Representatives at the 4th of March was during Johnson's Administration-a revolutionary period, when half the country was in a state of siege, and the President was suspected of treason. The Congressional performances of that day are not a good subject for imitation now.

The only Department Report of much importance which has been given to the public during the past week has been that of the Post-office, the figures of which we shall not attempt to go into or discuss to detail, as they seem to be, like most Washington statistics, involved

in obscurity. Immediately after the appearance of the report, a cerrection was telegraphed to this city, which made a difference, one way or the other, of some ten millions. Generally speaking, the report resembles other reports. During the year everything has been on the increase. There are more post-offices, more postmasters, more miles of transportation done, and more letters delivered than ever before. There is also a larger deficit. The difficulties with the railroads have been apparently settled (as it was obvious they must be to those who had read the wonderful report of Mr. Hipple-Mitchell on the subject, in which that distinguished statesman learnedly maintained that if the railroads would not come to terms the Government always had the remedy of appropriating the roads and running them itself), not by Mr. Jewell's confiscating Mr. Tom Scott's and Mr. Cornelius Vanderbilt's properties, and locking up Scott and Vanderbilt in the Old Capitol prison, but by paying the roads a little more money. The number of officials, including contractors, employed by the Post-office has swollen to nearly 50,000.

Those people who are still infatuated with a belief in General Grant's consistency of purpose as a reformer must have some difficulty in reconciling with this theory of his character such acts of his as inviting Harrington to a private reception and appointing his brother, Orville Grant, to the fattest Indian trading post in the West. We pointed out last week that Grant's Indian policy is a humbug, but such appointments as this look like something worse. We have never accused General Grant of corruption in office, and shall not do so now; but we are compelled to say that when an Indian reform movement which for five years has been implicitly confided to General Grant's charge ends in the resignation of all the President's chosen commissioners on the ground that they are not supported by him in their efforts for reform, and when we are informed that this Indian post is handed over to Orville Grant, people cannot be expected to judge the head and front of the whole very leniently. Indeed, if General Grant were not General Grant, and had not saved the Union, it would probably now be difficult to convince people that he was entitled to anything short of impeachment for "mal and corrupt" administration. He is evidently made of such coarse material as to be impervious to public opinion, and incapable of discrimination between a popular. demand for pure government and what his friend Shepherd calls "the howl and clamor of the mob."

The Civil-Rights Bill, which made such a noise last winter, is probably dead. The President has almost given official notice that he will veto it if it passes Congress; and as no one, even among the negroes, seems to be clamoring for its passage, there is very little chance of its being revived. There is in fact no reason why it should be. It is grossly unconstitutional, as we have pointed out in these columns—so unconstitutional that probably not ten respectable lawyers in the country could be found who would be willing to father it—and, as a remedial measure, it is open to the objection that the class for whose benefit it was intended is the very class which seems to be most terrified at the prospect of its passage—whether by this class we mean the negroes or the Southern white Republican politicians in those States in which the loss of a few negro votes hands the State machinery over to the Democrats.

The Safe Burglary trial has ended in a disagreement of the jury, and this has led to a very thorough re-examination of the case in the press. The best account of the matter we have seen is that published editorially in the *Post*, which is apparently done by some one familiar with the law and with courts of justice. The charge for which Harrington and the others have been tried is not burglary, as

might be supposed from the title which the case has popularly acquired, but a conspiracy to impute a burglary to Columbus Alexander, of Washington. Mr. Alexander, curiously enough, has turned out to be a gentleman of a nice sense of honor, who, far from being so likely to commit a burglary that a burglary might easily be "put upon him," was last winter the leading man among the memorialists who petitioned Congress for an investigation of the District Ring. In the course of the investigation which took place, books were produced purporting to be those of John O. Evans & Co., contractors. There was some doubt as to their genuineness, and it was for the interest of Mr. Alexander and the other petitioners to get possession of the real books, they being then in the District Attorney's safe. Alexander was approached, and the books were offered to him if he would pay for them. He declined to buy evidence, but said that he was willing to pay for necessary expenses. Perhaps the most remarkable thing in connection with the case is that the chief men indicted for this conspiracy are officials connected with the administration of justice, Harrington being Assistant United States District Attorney, Whitley having been Chief of "the Secret Service" of the Treasury Department, Nettleship his assistant, and Cunz a clerk in the office. Without going into the details of the evidence, there is little or no doubt of the guilt of the accused.

The sudden termination of Mayor Havemeyer's career has obtained for him at the hands of the press a kindlier estimate of his merits than he would have earned had he lived till January. He was not a good mayor, and there was no excuse for the petty chicane he practised, and which he seemed to consider the essence of the act of government. He made very bad appointments, and what made them worse was that they were in some cases appointments of his friends and cronics. He belonged to a past generation, and was little in sympathy with the very classes in the community who elected him to office, and on whom it was necessary for him to depend in order to govern successfully. It was impossible at times in his obstinate and queer career not to be reminded of some of the burlesque heroes of Diedrich Knickerbocker's history of a still earlier period; and his obstinacy could not have been more Dutch had New York been still New Amsterdam. Had he remained in a private station, however, he would have been remembered only with regret.

The Grangers are coming to grief in every direction. Their Grange treasurers are getting into the way of defaulting, just as political treasurers do; their California shipping-agents have failed; and, worse than all, the crops are in a flourishing condition, and the agricultural population of the Granger States is more prosperous than it has been for a long time. We do not make this statement on our own authority, but on that of the Chicago Tribune, which ought to be considered a pretty good witness, inasmuch as a year ago it had a strong inclination to believe the Granger movement against the railroads founded in justice. We quote the Tribune of the 18th of last month:

"A year ago, a terrible panic paralyzed the business of the country. Jay Cooke & Co. and many other large houses failed; the banks in New York and St. Louis, and most other cities, stopped payment, and financial ruin stared in the face everybody who had any considerable indebtedness afloat. Some of our own banks bowed before the storm, but more of them braved it, it is believed, than in any other city in the country. From this disaster the West began to recover sooner than any other section of the Union. The improvement has been slowly but steadily going forward, till now but little remains to remind us of the dangers and trials through which we were passing only a year ago. The causes which have promoted this early return to comparative prosperity can be found largely in the remunerative prices our farmers have received for their products; the fact that they had last year an abundance of them to sell; that their Eastern and European customers were forced to have them; and that the freight-charges for the year have been on an average less than usual."

When we take into account, also, the fact that the recent elections have not all turned on the Granger question, and that the public discussion of the farmers' wrongs has quite ceased, we may safely infer that the bottom of that agitation has fallen out.

Lord Acton's letter to Mr. Gladstone, in answer to his "expostulation" with the English Catholics touching the effect of the Vatican Decrees on their civil allegiance, had not reached our hands when we summed up Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet and Archbishop Manning's reply last week. Lord Acton's position among English Catholies has always been a very high one, and he acted at Rome, during the sitting of the Council, as a sort of unaccredited representative of more than one Catholic Government, as well as of his own, but was so well known to be in close sympathy with the opposition that he was in constant danger of a "descent" on his papers by the Roman police. Since the Council, though he has, we believe, shown no disposition to join the Old Catholic movement, he has been in close relations with Dr. Döllinger and others of its chiefs. What he says in reply to Mr. Gladstone is substantially a plea of confession and avoidance-viz., that the Popes have from very early times claimed the outrageous powers which the Vatican Council has finally accorded them, and have, besides, been guilty of shocking offences against humanity and decency, such as deciding that it is no murder to kill an excommunicated person-a rule which actually has for centuries stood and stands to-day unchanged in the "Corpus Juris"; that the murder of a Protestant is so good a deed that it atones for the murder of a Catholic; that faith need not be kept with heretic princes; declaring Queen Elizabeth dethroned, and commissioning an assassin to kill her; glorifying the massacre of St. Bartholomew, and urging the king to do it again. The Popes, says Lord Acton, did all these things among others without securing the approval and obedience of English Catholics, and they had done them before the emancipation of Catholics in 1829. Why, then, he asks, should English Protestants be alarmed now? and he declares that the Court of Rome is not able to carry English Catholics with it in all the follies and absurdities to which it may choose to commit itself now any more than heretofore. The reply of the Catholic press to this is that Lord Acton is a bad fellow. Lord Camoys, another English Catholic peer of high standing, has also written a letter somewhat in the same sense as Lord Acton, but he takes a much more serious view of the effect of the Vatican Decrees. He says "it is not likely that the present Pope will adopt against Queen Victoria the course pursued by the then Pope against Queen Elizabeth, but that there is no telling what edict might be issued by the author of the Syllabus." He says also that if an edict were now issued tending to destroy a Catholic's allegiance to his government he would be placed in a very painful dilemma, inasmuch as the Pope is now dogmatically infallible; which he formerly was not, and obedience to him is compulsory, which it formerly was not. The Catholic citizen would, therefore, be compelled in the above contingency to rebel or run the risk of eternal damnation, and Lord Camoys plainly intimates that he, for his part, would take the risk of damnation.

Sir George Bowyer, who passes for the best Catholic canon lawyer in England, has also written a letter, intended to confirm Archbishop Manning's position, in which he naïvely declares that the only difference between Protestants and Catholics in deciding where the line lies which separates the law of the land from "the higher law" is, that "the rule of faith of Protestants is private judgment, and that of Roman Catholics is the infallible voice of spiritual authority, which they [we] believe to be under Divine guidance." The Pope has also addressed a deputation of English Catholics about the Gladstone letter, and, being nearly as fond of mixed metaphor as Mr. Conkling, says that the ex-Minister has "suddenly come forward like a viper assailing the bark of St. Peter," and that he has not read the pamphlet, because he does not like to read "blasphemies," and hints pretty broadly that Mr. Gladstone is a liar. Archbishop Manning has also addressed a meeting of English

Catholics at his house on the politics of St. Peter, in which he proposed the Pope as a great international arbitrator, in lieu of such bodies as the Geneva Tribunal, and the Church as the proper person to decide in what manner the various sects of Christendom could be reunited, in place of the Bonn Conference or the Evangelical Alliance, and recommended the Pope's infallibility as a most soothing and salutary doctrine for all the nations of the earth, and he warned Catholics against any backing down about it.

The French Assembly has doubtless met at this writing, and has perhaps received Marshal MacMahon's message, but if so we are obliged to go to press in ignorance of its contents. The near approach of the opening of the session was, at the latest dates, a source of genuine regret throughout France, most people believing that the effect on business would be bad, and that the winter's debates and attempts at legislation would hinder the country from prospering as it might do under an abundant harvest-a state of mind about the national legislature by no means unknown on this side of the water. The great subject of popular speculation for some weeks back has been the nature of the attempt which it was thought the Marshal would make to bring about what is called "the organization of the Septennat"-that is, the provision of some sort of a constitutional fabric at its back which would enable the Assembly to dissolve. The difficulty in the way of this is the feeling of both the Bonapartists and Monarchists that anything of the kind might, and probably would, prove the foundation of the Republic, but it has been thought the Marshal may be able to carry his point through a coalition ad hoc of the Orleanists and Republicans, who, by threatening the Legitimists with a dissolution, might induce them to consent to a temporary arrangement. This would suit the Republicans as a possible beginning of the Republic, and the Orleanists as opening a way for the Duc d'Aumale to the executive chair. The relations of the Government with Germany have in the meantime visibly improved, the latter having semi-officially disavowed all connection with the recent somewhat insolent Spanish note, and officially expressed satisfaction with the arrangements made by the French authorities for the maintenance of neutrality on the Spanish frontier.

The Italian election returns are now all in, and show a majority of from fifty to one hundred for the Government out of about five hundred members. The electors are divided into as many "colleges" as there are members, and the successful candidate has to get at least half the votes cast, and two-thirds of those which might have been east-that is, of the registered electors. The victory of the Government, which is essentially the victory of moderation, economy, order, and respect for established institutions, has furnished the English press with materials for some comparisons between the way in which the Italians have been managing their affairs, under the most terrible difficulties, and that in which the French bave, with everything in their favor, been managing theirs, greatly and deservedly to the advantage of the Italians. But then it ought to be borne in mind that the Italians have not had to contend, as the French and Spaniards have, with the evils of ignorant suffrage. The Italian voters-what the French call "le pays légal"-do not number over 500,000, and they belong mostly to the class of larger taxpayers. This restriction of the suffrage, while it will undoubtedly weaken the Government in the long run and for general purposes, has probably helped it in its late conflict with the Papacy, and in dealing with such delicate questions as the army and the finances during the last fifteen eventful years. With universal suffrage, it is probable that many of the problems which vex the French and Spaniards would have arisen, but it is also a fair deduction from Italian character and recent Italian history that they would have been met with vastly greater ability and good sense.

At certain intervals, the "Eastern question" receives its share of the attention of European diplomatists, and its revival at the present moment is due to the attitude recently assumed by the Principality

of Roumania. When, at the meeting of the Emperors of Germany, Russia, and Austria, in September, 1872, the Eastern question was mooted, it was thought desirable to preserve the status quo, and the Porte was confirmed in its rights of sovereignty over Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro. In consequence, commercial treaties between these and other countries have continued to be subject to the approval of the Sultan. Nevertheless, Roumania claims the right of independently concluding a commercial convention with Austria, for the purpose of settling minor details of tariff, and she is sustained in her course by Austria, Germany, and Russia, who addressed an identical note to this effect to the Turkish Minister of Foreign Affairs. Turkey replied through her ambassadors at Vienna, Berlin, and St. Petersburg, expressing her willingness to accede to the wishes of the three powers, and proposing that Roumania be induced to address herself to the Porte. She, however, insists on the rights of sovereignty guaranteed to her by the Treaty of Paris, and asks whether a continued violation of the articles of that Treaty would not tend to swell a current which one day the powers might find themselves unable to resist. There is, of course, more than a mere haggling about conventionalities at the bottom of this dispute. Reumania has all along shown an ill-disguised desire to magnify the conclusion of her commercial convention with Austria into a European question, and there are indications of an estrangement in the relations of Austria and Turkey which might serve to explain Count Andrássy's position. Russia has very good reasons for favoring the autonomy of the Turkish dependencies, and the co-operation of Prussia may either be a disinterested service of friendship to all parties, as the Vienna correspondent of the London Times believes, or, more probably, a manifestation of good-will towards Roumania, whose sovereign is a prince of the house of Hohenzollern. France and England, who were likewise appealed to, have thus far preserved an attitude of silent watchfulness, while Italy alone has remained unconcerned, and refused to take any action in this matter.

King David Kalakana of the Sandwich Islands has landed at San Francisco on a visit to the United States of peace and goodwill. Negotiations of an interesting character have been going on for some time between the United States and the Islands, looking to a reciprocity treaty, or the acquisition of a harbor on Pearl River. or both, while there is a party always at work for annexation. For many reasons, however, both domestic and foreign, annexation is not a question likely to be much discussed between Kalakana and the Great Father at Washington, while there is reason to believe that a treaty of some sort advantageous to this country, and at the same time not likely to do the natives of the Islands any more harm than intercourse with foreigners is already accomplishing, may be negotiated. The internal condition of the Sandwich Islands is peculiar. The native population, formerly cannibals, are now mild and inoffensive, and constantly declining in numbers, fifty or sixty thousand being all that is now left of them. They have a little sham government of their own, with a conservative monarch, one or two houses of parliament, and a body of judicial and administrative officials who come from England, Massachusetts, and other places, and, with the usual kind, obliging disposition of Anglo-Saxons when they find themselves among inferior races, have undertaken to govern the islanders, decide their quarrels, establish justice, and promote a general reign of order and harmony, on condition that they may make their fortune out of taxes by the way. The great crop is sugar, and the Chinese are now imported to cultivate it. A few years, and there will be no more Sandwich Islanders, but only a number of rich foreigners with their Chinese proletariat, and then or before then the Islands must fall into the hands of some foreign government. The United States, however, will do well to confine itself to commercial relations with this distant part of the world. The Fiji Islands, according to a popular rumor, were offered before their cession to Great Britain to the United States, and Mr. Fish wisely declined them. We have no machinery for the proper and efficient government of remote colonies, and the only safe course for us now is "home rule" in every sense of the word.

THE NATIONAL ARCHITECT.

THE New York Tribune has been at the ungracious pains of looking up the expenditures made by the British Government for its royal parks and palaces, the British Museum, and all other public buildings, and of instituting some unpleasant comparisons between that oppressive and extravagant monarchy and our own simple and economical republic. It appears from the researches of the Tribune that the entire expenditure of the British Government in 1873 for what we call "public buildings," and for a great many things besides, such as the British Museum, harbors of refuge, ambassadors' houses abroad, and a national thanksgiving at St. Paul's, was only about \$8,000,000, while Congress appropriated for the last fiscal year (ending June 30, 1874) over \$12,000,000 for our public buildings, without having a royal park or palace, or a British Museum, or a harbor of refuge, or a foreign minister's residence abroad, or even a national thanksgiving to pay for. What the expenditures may amount to for the current fiscal year-the year of rigorous economy-the Tribune avers no ordinary investigator can ascertain. for Congress appropriated over \$8,000,000 in definite amounts which the public can read or learn about, and then took a cross cut to the unknown and indefinite by adding in general terms the unexpended balances of the preceding year. In the "Finance Accounts of the United Kingdom of Great Britain" these unexpended balances are always fully set forth, but in the reports of the Treasury Department they do not appear. Undoubtedly, they are known to somebody, and can be ascertained by anybody with sufficient trouble and diligence, but for the public at large, and even for a powerful and painstaking newspaper like the Tribune, they are practically suppressed.

A comprehensive and at the same time rigorous comparison of the expenditures which these two governments, so old and so new, are making in the form of permanent investments in public buildings, might furnish some very instructive material. But a mere comparison of gross expenditures can be of very little service to anybody. The conditions that surrounded each case are too distinct to admit of strict numerical comparison. On the one hand, we have a much larger territory to provide for, and for the most part a territory that has never been provided for before; on the other hand, we have a dual form of government, and public buildings may be erected by the State governments which in Great Britain are paid for by Parliament. It must also be a matter of enquiry whether buildings which in the one country are a county or city charge, do not in the other fall upon the national treasury. So far as the Tribune's investigation has gone, it unquestionably shows by comparison an extraordinary outlay on the part of a people deeply in debt, and professing to practise rigorous retrenchment, and yet the comparison really understates the case. The British expenditures cited take in, as has been said, the parks and palaces, the British Museum, and houses for English ambassadors at foreign courts; they also take in the furniture and expenses of the Parliament House. The American expenditures which the Tribune cites do not embrace those made for the Executive mansion, nor for the Capitol, nor for Congressional furniture, nor for the public grounds at the seat of Government. In short, it is a comparison where everything may not be included in the statement of British expenditures, but where a great deal has certainly been left out of the American. In other words, it is a comparison which, when looked at from the economic point of view, is much too favorable to us.

The American expenditures which have thus been used as the basis of the comparison are those grouped in the appropriation acts under the title of "Public Buildings under the Supervising Architect of the Treasury." For the present fiscal year, these number upwards of forty distinct appropriations, varying in amounts from \$5,000 to \$1,344,207, and footing up in the aggregate (apart from the unexpended balance of last year) a little over \$8,606,000. The objects of these outlays (thus placed apparently under the exclusive control of one man) are, for the most part, public buildings, which are scattered over the country from Boston in Massachusetts to Portland in Oregon. They also vary in every possible detail,

one being the new State Department in Washington; another, the new Post-office in New York; a third, a mint in Carson; a fourth, a court-house in Raleigh. Some of the appropriations, though made for minor and incidental matters, nevertheless appear of colossal proportions. Thus, to recur to illustration by comparison, we find that Parliament appropriates for royal palaces £41,552, and Congress an almost precisely equal amount, viz., \$225,000, "for fuel, light, and water, and miscellaneous items required by janitors and firemen in the proper care of the public buildings under the control of the Treasury." The common American idea that the palaces of England are a grievous burden upon an overtaxed people is thus exploded by our own Congress; for who shall say that they are a burden upon a much wealthier community than ours if it does not cost as much to keep them up as to keep our Treasury janitors and firemen supplied with "fuel, light, water, and miscellaneous items "?

But notwithstanding such items as this, it is evident that the bulk of this annual outlay of \$8,000,000 is devoted to the erection of public buildings. Substantially, all of these buildings are of an expensive and some are of an exceedingly ambitious type. Every one of them is expected to outlast the generations who erect them, and a few to go down the ages and become historic monuments. None is of the temporary type—the type that betokens that a person or a people is waiting to grow rich-such as the old Post-office building which has so long served this city, or the plain brick "War and Navy Departments" in Washington. The latter, indeed, are about to be torn down to make way for one of the new type-an Ionic marble pile with a French or Mansard roof, known as the "New State Department." This transition from the plain and cheap utilitarian to costly art betokens a stage in the national progress where a people believe that they are not bound to the necessities of to-day, but may build for posterity.

When a nation thus takes to working for present fame or future admiration, and designs to give an element of perpetuity to its public buildings, every one knows that it necessarily builds in with its money its mistakes, and perpetuates them in marble or lasting granite. It is such buildings as these that we are now building (or trying to build) which require care and skill, the highest order of talent at least, and, when it can be procured, the most exalted architectural genius. If some of our growing structures do not fall down in the next century for want of skill in their construction, or are not pulled down as being unpardonably inconvenient or useless or grotesque, if, in short, they have the luck to live a hundred years, the question will naturally be, what care and foresight, what conscientious effort and faithful common-sense, did the people who built them give toward securing edifices at all commensurate with their great cost, or at all deserving of going down into history? Until the last week it is probable that there are not a thousand Americans out of Washington who would not have answered, if thus questioned, that they knew nothing at all about the matter. "Great structures," they would have added, "are going up at great cost, which appear certainly larger and probably better to the native eye than anything it has seen before, but what foreigners will think of them, accustomed as they are to world-renowned works of art erected by men who struggled with their whole might to make them perfect, is a question as to which most of us must confess some curiosity at least." During the past week, however, the accident of a personal quarrel has disclosed to the country the fact that these ambitious schemes and this great outlay have been confided to a single individual holding a position which is not even an office, i.e., which does not involve the responsibility of appointment by the President and confirmation by the Senate. This person, by that adroitness which of late years forms so prominent a part of our public misfortunes, has worked up this entire business of public building to its present dimensions. From what we can learn, the craving for new public buildings in every part of the country has enabled him to form combinations in Congress which carry or defeat almost anything. Coming to Washington without any professional reputation, he has speedily become the final judge and arbiter of all our public archi-

tecture in every part of the country, with the solitary exception, we believe, of the Capitol. Furthermore, while Mr. Mullett has been the official architect, not only of great buildings in progress of erection at the same time with those in Washington, New York, and Boston, and of custom-houses, mints, post-offices, and court-houses in every part of the country, he has also been the superintendent, the manager, the contracting agent, and the disbursing officer of the entire business, and has even earried his unrestrained and undefined power so far as to set up an official furniture manufactory for the Government, and, indeed, to do what he pleased with the funds entrusted to him not by law, but by the appropriation bills of successive Congresses. For all this really vast responsibility, and for this labor, which, if really performed, would task a score of able men, he has been paid a paltry salary of \$4,000 a year. In the matter of disbursements there may have been-there probably have been-the ordinary formal checks of the Treasury which apply to all disbursing officers, but beyond this there has been no Board of Control, no real supervising authority, and his official life apparently has been largely passed in managing committees of Congress, in cajoling "watch-dogs of the Treasury," and in riding over his only official superiors, the former Secretaries of the Department. For a former Secretary to have quarrelled with Mr. Mullett would have been as dangerous as to have quarrelled with Mr. Sanborn or Mr. Jayne. Mr. Mullett, indeed, has been one of our rulers, ruling Congress, and through Congress the Treasury and country. The part which he has played has been a part which many rulers before him have selected, that of adorning his realm with costly architectural works which he esteemed fine. The straightforward course of Mr. Bristow seems a part of the decree of fate which has given us the disclosures of the last two years. Whether there is anything worse behind the rupture than insubordination may be a matter for investigation by the next House of Representatives.

THE CIVIL ALLEGIANCE OF CATHOLICS.

THE controversy excited by the Decrees of the Council of the Vatican and by the Pope's list of damnable errors, is fast settling down on the only point which possesses much practical interest-namely, the extent to which they are likely to affect the relations of Catholic citizens to the civil government under which they live. The other point by which many people were in the beginning most disturbed-namely, the extent to which the Decrees and the Syllabus would probably affect men's relations to literature and science, has rapidly declined in interest under the influence of more mature consideration. For it needs only a very slight acquaintance with the state of the public mind in all Western countries to see that no part, or, at all events, only a very small part, of the class which allows itself to engage in the moral and scientific specula tion by which the world is now agitated, is likely to retreat from the arena on receiving a signal from Rome. In other words, the mental and moral conditions which lead a man to indulge in free enquiry on fundamental questions, may be fully relied on to prevent his being troubled by anything which either the Pope or the Council may say by way of prohibition. If a Catholic likes to hear Huxley and Tyndall, and has been in the habit of reading what books he pleases, the temperament, or bent, or influences which lead him into these ways are certain to make him indifferent to ecclesiastical directions for the regulation of his lines of thought; therefore, all warnings addressed to him by Protestants are apt to seem either useless or impertinent, or both.

On the other hand, the class of Catholics whose orthodoxy the Decrees and the Encyclical were likely to confirm or protect, were very unlikely ever to put their orthodoxy in danger. They were likely to be persons, in short, without any turn for speculation of any kind, and without the capacity, even if they had the desire, to construct a new theory of the universe. Of course, we do not mean to say that the solemn declarations of the government of the church would in no case lead educated and inquisitive Catholics to greater

carefulness in their external conduct. Nonconformity or open external disobedience to the church might often prove a matter of great social or political inconvenience, and, for domestic reasons, a cause of real suffering, and would therefore be avoided by thousands who in private allowed their understanding to rove in forbiddenfields. That this is the state of mind of a large majority of Catholic men of the middle and upper classes in France, Spain, and Italy, there is no denying. One of the most fruitful causes of error, in calculating the power of the church in modern society, is forgetfulness of the fact that there is a vast amount of concealed freethinking or indifference within the church, or, in other words, that faith among those who are called the faithful differs very widely in clearness and intensity. There are Catholics, as there are Protestants, who believe most fervently and devoutly all that the most orthodox doctors of their church have ever taught; others who do not know exactly what they believe, and who, for social convenience' sake, or through mental indolence, do not care to examine their own belief at all; and others, again, who are as sceptical as Voltaire, but think the church a useful institution. All these pass outwardly as Christians. Upon Catholies of these three classes the recent deliverances of the Vatican bave, as far as their creed is concerned, probably produced no effect worth mention. The devout man remains devout, but he would have been as devout as he is now if the last Council had never met. The indifferent man remains indifferent, the sceptical sceptical, but all keep silent as mice. It is not the fashion of our time to "come out," or secede, or found new sects, or go to the stake for points of doctrine, and in fact it is very difficult to elicit strong, vigorous opposition to any religious proposition, however wild. People having seen many centuries of fruitless controversy over doctrine, have lost their ardor about it.

Now, this state of mind has been one of the greatest difficulties of the Ultramontane party in the Catholic Church. It has seemed impossible of late years to bring about a revival, or, in other words, to rouse people into even decent attention to religious matters. The promulgation of new articles of faith touching things with purely spiritual or abstract did no good, because the laity looked on in indifference or swallowed languidly anything that was offered them in the way of signs or wonders. The Pope might adopt any system of astronomy or any theory of the origin of the universe or of the future life he pleased, and put it in a Bull, and nobody would make much fuss over it. It has been found necessary for him, therefore, to come down on the solid earth as a mundane power, and put forward more vehemently than ever before a string of propositions of the most startling character touching men's duties and relations, not in the life to come but in this life. Accordingly, he offers to damn anybody who says the press ought to be free, or that the church may not employ physical force against its enemies when it can, or that the ecclesiastical power ought not to be superior to the civil power, or that the Pope ought not to be temporal sovereign of the Papal States, or that any state has a right to regulate the education of its children, or that any form of worship but the Catholic ought to be tolerated. Now, when these things are said with a great flourish of trumpets they do startle people. When men are told they must believe in the Immaculate Conception, or in the Miracle of Lourdes or of La Salette, or that an old man in Rome speaking ex cathedra is "infallible," they are not roused by it; but when they are told that the foregoing definitions of the duty of citizens are promulgated as of divine authority, they naturally begin to ask how many of their neighbors believe them or are likely to act on them; whether any attempt is likely to be made to carry them into effect, and whether they are likely to be seriously taught to children.

Accordingly, the controversy between Protestantism and Catholicism, which, long after the Reformation on the Continent, and during the early part of the present century in England, turned on faith and works, and penance, and purgatory, and confession, and transubstantiation, is now recurring with considerable violence to the questions with which it was occupied in England in the reign of Elizabeth, namely, the extent of the Pope's political power and

the capacity of Catholic citizens for civil allegiance. This is a burning question, as we see. It accounts for the passage of the Falk laws in Germany, and for the stir created by Gladstone's pamphlet in England. Protestants in both countries begin frankly to declare that though they do not particularly care what a man thinks about purgatory or the age of the world, they care a great deal what he thinks about the comparative claims of the Emperor William and the Pope on his obedience at serious crises. Bismarck has characteristically chosen to bring the matter to an issue by legislation intended first of all to repudiate the formal limitations recently put on the authority of the state by the church-in which we hold, he is, "humanly speaking," perfectly justified; and, secondly, to prevent the ecclesiastical view of the relations between church and state from being taught to the common people-and this he does by insisting that the priest shall, before receiving his ecclesiastical education, receive a sound secular one.

No collision of this kind can be brought about in England, because the Catholic clergy is not, and has not been for over three centuries, in the pay of the state, or in any formal or official relation to the state, and because the state in England exercises no such supervision over the higher education as it exercises in Prussia. Accordingly, in England, when the public gets alarmed, the politicians, instead of bringing bills into Parliament, write pamphlets and letters to the newspapers. Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet,* "expostulating" with his Catholic countrymen for not making some active demonstration against the Vatican Decrees, which has made a great sensation, is open to nearly all the criticism which has been directed against it. The Catholics cannot, as Lord Acton points out, show now that if the Pope were to make any such claim on their obedience as Mr. Gladstone thinks under church law he might make, they would resist him. It may be, too, as Lord Acton asserts, that the Pope is no better armed with authority than he was a century ago, and is much worse armed with power. And it may be, as the Pall Mall Gazette points out, that Mr. Gladstone's appeal is from first to last clumsy, and irritating to the very class which the author professes to be trying to persuade. But it none the less furnishes expression to a desire which has, since 1870, been spreading in all Protestant countries with a large Catholic population, and which the language of the Catholic clergy has helped to intensify, viz., the desire to know how the Vatican Decrees have affected the actions of their Catholic fellow-citizens in their duties to the state; or, in other words, how Catholics would act if their own Government and the Court of Rome should ever come into collision about a piece of domestic legislation? That there is any way of getting a formal answer to this question we do not well see. Indeed, it is in its nature a question to which no formal answer can be given, and which we cannot hope to have much light upon until such a collision actually takes place. But the discussion of the matter now is none the less necessary. There is a cloud over it which may be at least in a measure removed by pushing the Catholic prelates a little more closely to the wall. This discussion seems to be rendered all the more necessary by Archbishop Manning's reply to Mr. Gladstone, of which we gave a summing up last week, and which was eminently characteristic of that subtle but by no means ingenuous divine, who says in it that "the civil allegiance of Catholics is as undivided as that of all Christians, and of all men who recognize a divine and natural moral law," and that the civil allegiance of Catholics is limited only, like that of other Christians, "by conscience and the law of God." The question which this statement of Catholic doctrine leaves in the dark happens to be the only question in the controversy which possesses any importance, and that is, to whom does a good Catholic go since 1870 when he wants to know what the law of God is? If "his conscience" said one thing about an act of the legislature, and the Pope said another, to which would be listen? In short, where does a good Catholic find his "natural moral law" when he gets into a dispute with the state? If he finds it at the Vatican, what is the difference between

having one's allegiance limited by "the natural moral law" and having it limited by the Syllabus? Every good citizen will see the desirableness of having Catholic divines express themselves freely and without fencing and equivocation on such points as these. They go to the root of civil polity.

JOHN RICHARD DENNETT.

BOTH the Nation and its readers have during the past week suffered a loss which it is hardly an exaggeration to call irreparable, in the death of Mr. John R. Dennett, who has been one of the editorial staff of this journal from its foundation, and whose contributions to its columns have from the very first furnished one of its strongest claims to public approbation. That a writer of whose services we speak thus warmly should not be known even by name to the great majority of our subscribers, and still less known to the public at large, is not in his case wholly, or even in large part, a result of anonymous journalism. It has not been our fortune to meet with any one who could so easily, and by so small a change in his relations to the world without, have won a fair share of the fame which is in our day divided so lavishly among literary aspirants of all kinds and conditions, and who was so completely and unreservedly indifferent to it. It might truly be said of him that if he toiled at all he preferred to toil obscurely, and that though far from heedless of the praise and sympathy of the small circle of friends with whom he lived, the satisfaction he derived from his literary work was due almost wholly to the fact that it furnished the means of expression to a mind of remarkable power and acuteness. He became connected with the Nation in 1865, when he was only in his twenty-seventh year, and while studying law at Harvard, and with the exception of a year passed at the South as our special correspondent, continued regularly to contribute literary reviews and other matter of a similar character to our columns down to the last month of his life; and we believe that after nine years' experience of his work none of those who were familiar with it can now recall a single case on which more mature consideration would lead them to pronounce his judgment fundamentally erroneous. It would indeed be very hard to find anybody whose literary sense was so acute, whose perception of fitness was so quick, and whose standards exercised so constant and powerful an influence on his conclusions. To say he did not sometimes seem captious and even harsh would be a tribute which his memory does not need, for all those who knew him well knew also that there has rarely been a critic whose criticisms were less colored by personal feelings or relations. His likes and dislikes, however strong, were purely literary, and indeed their very strength was to his friends an illustration, which often had its comic side, not of the sharpness of his temper, but of the fervor of his devotion to his own ideal of excellence. His faults as a critic, trifling as they were, were those of a man "qui avait trop tôt vu la beauté parfaite." Whether better health and wider social relatious, with their constant demands on his charity and forbearance, might not have made him more patient with feebleness, and pretence, and affectation, and vulgarity, and the rest of the vices which the swelling tide of popular literature carries daily under the eyes of those who bring high aims and clear perceptions to the critic's calling, it is unhappily useless now to speculate. It is no part of our present purpose to defend him or apologize for him; we are only trying to make him better understood of some of those who were troubled by his judgments, without always knowing who had uttered them.

The meution of his health is necessary to explain his failure to produce as well as to criticise. That he was capable of creation of a very high order nobody who knew him well ever doubted. His early promise was very great. He graduated at Harvard in 1862, and was the claspoet, and his poem was one which, in the judgment of all who heard it, and James Russell Lowell was among them, was not only probably the bes class poem ever produced, but would have well borne comparison with the best poems of any kind. He went to the South immediately afterwards, an for a year or two had charge of a cotton plantation in South Carolina, an e perience which gave him a curious and useful familiarity with the negro and negro life, and with most of the leading features of what we have st unhappily to call "the Southern question." In the winter of 1865-6 ! travelled through the Cotton States as the correspondent of the Nation, as our subscribers of that period will remember the remarkable descriptive power and keen seuse of humor displayed in his letters, published under the general heading of "The South as It Is" in our first two volumes. The more than this cannot be said of them was due to the restrictions impoon him, for he was specially directed to confine himself to depicting what saw; but more remarkable writing in this field, we think, is not often u with in periodical literature. After his return be never left the office of the Nation except to pass two years at Harvard-1939-72-as Assistant-Profess

 $^{^{\}rm s}$ An edition in large type, with Archbishop Manning's and Lord Acton's replies, has been published by the Appletons.

of Rhetoric, a position for which, however, though he filled it well, his temperament unfitted him, as its duties involved a considerable amount of drudgery. But through the whole of these slight changes in his short career the shadow of the disease which had carried off nearly all his family, and to which he has at last fallen a victim, was upon him, and most certainly damped his ardor, weakened his power of persistence, and shortened his views of the future. Of what he might have accomplished with a constitution better adapted to his surroundings, one got an idea, however faint, from his extraordinary powers of apprehension, which we have rarely seen equalled and never surpassed. He had only to turn his mind to any subject, however foreign to his tastes and habits, to master it with singular rapidity, and hold its leading features with singular tenacity. As a trifling, and to his friends somewhat grotesque, illustration of this, we may mention that his knowledge of that very odious subject, Southern State politics since the war, was accurate and minute to a remarkable degree. His plantation life and his journey as our correspondent had given him an interest in the South which he never lost, and which was cultivated by tolerably regular reading of the Southern papers, and the result was that he became a perfectly trustworthy authority on recent Southern history. He was familiar with the career of all the leading carpet-baggers and scalawags, knew the details of their principal frauds and thefts and migrations, and of the various processes, savory and unsavory, by which the existing State governments were built up and maintained.

The oddity of this lore was of course only visible to those who knew his great proficiency in widely different fields, and how far away from scenes of vulgar political profligacy his own tastes carried him. Indeed, he had no natural liking for politics at all, and his studying law was probably a mistake. His mind was a great deal too subtle, his love of perfection too strong, and his perception of the allowances and reservations called for by strict accuracy in the presentation of any subject outside the realm of pure science was too keen, to permit of his ever being a successful lawyer or political writer. In fact, his writing on all subjects was somewhat marred by excessive watchfulness over his own statements. He had the hatred of exaggeration, of looseness, of reckless generalization, of flashy coloring, and indeed of all gross disproportion between means and results, which comes of the highest literary culture, but which nevertheless often reminds one that literary culture, like other culture in special fields, may be too high for much of the inevitable work of the world. But one of its curious results in Mr. Dennett's case was that it gave him what we might almost call an eager eye for the humorous and picturesque side of politics. He watched a political rascal or charlatan with much the same kind of interest with which a painter watches a Spanish or Italian beggar, and remembered him as a sort of literary study. He consequently liked attending political conventions, but bestowed his interest rather on the acting of the managers than on the conflict of passions and interests, or the working of the machinery, and usually brought away from them a large store of humorous reminiscence. The peculiarity of this taste, however, could, as we have said, hardly be appreciated by anybody who had not heard him talk in his best mood and in his own walks. We do not think we do him more than justice when we say that this was often an entertainment of the highest order. His knowledge of English literature, and of whatever was needed of history or mental or moral or social philosophy to light it up, was both wide and deep; and when in his best vein, and in society in which he felt at ease, he was capable of discoursing by the hour ou almost any of the topics on which conversation is usual or possible, with extraordinary fulness of information and command of language, and this not as a well-read man simply, like so many of the smaller littérateurs of our day, who seem overwhelmed by their own stores, but as a man who had thought much and long of whatever he discussed, and who had examined it under various lights and from various points of view, and to whom what our friends of the daily press call "the ball of discussion" was really a ball, and not an anvil or a barrel of flour. Here, too, unhappily, the display of his great powers was checked by his temperament; for he was very shy, and the animation which was needed to loose his tongue only came in very few circles. The mandlin element in literature and oratory, and the growing practice of public weeping in print and on the platform, had no bitterer enemy; but, probably, few men ever had a tenderer heart. The very last words he wrote for the Nation were praise of Dr. Holmes's Atlantic article on Jeffries Wyman, for Wyman was a man for whose character Mr. Dennett, without in the least sharing his scientific ardor, had the keenest sympathy and admiration. The only communication which came from him after this was an announcement-written with the tremor of growing weakness-that the end was near, and that his old haunts would see him no more.

Mr. Dennett's family were originally from Nova Scotia, where he himself was born, at Chatham on the Miramichi River, and moved

to Woburn, Mass., when he was only five or six years old. His father was killed by an accident when the son was quite young, aud the narrow circumstances in which he had to struggle for education so affected a sensitive and somewhat morbid temperament as to produce a reserve from which he only released himself in the company of a very few intimate and loved friends. How strong was the attachment they felt for him, and how much more attachment they could have displayed than he ever permitted, those of them who may read these lines know well. He died at the house of one of them, a clergyman who had been his classmate, on a quiet New England farm, at Westborough, Mass., after having been tenderly nursed through a tedious illness. None of his kindred were able to stand at his bedside in his last hours. In paying this feeble tribute to his memory on the part of those with whom he labored during the last nine years, and who had learned to know and love him as he deserved, one is inevitably restrained by the reflection that, such was his inbred modesty, even the coldest and most guarded praise would, could it now reach his ear, only surprise and perplex him. Our regret, too, over the early termination of a career in which all his friends saw possibilities so splendid, is softened -and it is the only thing that can soften it - by the reflection that the limitations which his health had placed on the display of his powers, were such as would have made life only a prolonged and anxious struggle with cares which a proud and sensitive man finds it hard to bear, because he has to bear them alone.

LAMARTINE.

II.

PARIS. Nov. 13.

WE left Lamartine on the road to Italy with his young wife, Marian Birch; he had been named Secretary of Legation at Naples. His 'Meditations' were in every one's hand in France-thirty-six editions were published in a single year; in Italy he could still enjoy the pleasures of obscurity. He travelled leisurely, stopping on his way at Turia, at Florence, at Rome; he arrived at Nola at the very moment when the revolution of the 6th of July took place-a very small and mild revolution, which simply forced the king to swear to a constitution which he afterwards obeyed only when he liked. Lamartine at that time was still a royalist, of what may be called the sentimental school; he did not look on monarchy as an instrument in political machinery; he looked upon it with the eye of a poet; he did not care for constitutions; he was ready to obey the king as a kuight of old times obeyed his lord. He cared little for what is called polities, and retired with his wife to the island of Ischia. His correspondence with Virien, in the autumn of 1820, reads like poetry translated into prose. He wrote in that period the elegy of 'Ischia,' which is one of the most melodious poems ever written in the French language:

"L'Océan amonreux de ces rives tranquilles Calme, en baisant leurs pieds, ses orageux transports, Et pressant dans ses bras ces golfes et ces fies, De son humide haleine en refraichit les bords. Du flot qui tour à tour s'avance et se retire L'œil aime à suivre au loin le flexible contour. . ."

This is musical poetry; the language becomes quite plastic in Lamartine's hands, and acquires a sort of fluidity which was unknown before him. The 'Chant d'Amour' was also composed at this time; it has all the beauty of an antique epithalamium.

In the middle of January, 1821, he went to Rome, where a son was born to him. He did not take any active part in the diplomatic service, probably thinking that the functions of a secretary were not important enough for him. He had a sort of permanent congé; went to Paris, to Mácon, to Loudon. He published from 1823 to 1829 the 'New Meditations,' which are, with the first 'Meditations,' his chief title to glory, the 'Death of Socrates,' and the 'Last Canto of Childe Harold's Pilgrimage.' Some of the 'New Meditations' have an incomparable charm. The 'Adieux à la mer,' for instance, are as fine as Shelley's best productions, and Lamartine's musa has a placidity, a supreme serenity, which is more soothing to the mind than the troubled inspiration of the great English poet. Can anything be more touching, more eternally true, more in accordance with the deepest instincts of humanity, than the verses of the "Préludes,"

"O vallons paternels! doux champs, humble chaumière"?

It is no small praise to say that in a French anthology such pieces must necessarily have a place, as well as the "Lake," "L'Isolement," the "Gulf of Baia," which belong to the first 'Meditations.' The 'New Meditations' were sold for 15,000 francs, the 'Death of Socrates' for 6,000, and 'Childe Harold's Pilgrimage' for 9,000 francs. Such prices were very large for the time, and would be considered so now, though Victor Hugo can command almost any price he chooses for his works.

Lamartine lost his first-born in 1822, and Madame de Lamartine became very ill. He lost two sisters, Madame de Vignet and Madame de Montberot. He had besides these misfortunes a small disappointment: he offered himself as a candidate to the French Academy—and whom did the Academy prefer to him? M. Droz. It is difficult to imagine by what principles the Academy was guided on this occasion. Lamartine was young, to be sure (he was thirty-four years of age), and M. Droz was an old man. If you should ask any cultivated man now if he ever read anything of M. Droz's, he would almost treat the question as an insult. M. Droz had his public in his time; do not let us be too hard on his public or on him. There are Drozes in every period: we have ours, and our children will have theirs.

Lamartine published a poem on the 'Coronation of Charles X.' It is a very loose production, somewhat in the style of an official cantata. It gave rise to a difficulty with the Duc d'Orléans, who became afterwards Louis Philippe. Lamartine, speaking of him, said in the fire of poetic inspiration that he had expiated the crimes of his father. Louis Philippe objected to the word crime, and Lamartine altered the word in a new edition. The original edition with the word crime has now become a bibliographical curiosity. Lamartine made the change in obedience to the distinct wish of Charles X., which to him was an order; but he made it very unwillingly, and the verse, altered as it is now, has no sense whatever. In 1825, Lamartine settled in Florence, with his wife, a little girl, now his only child, and his friend, M. de Virieu. Poets have unknown friends, but have also unknown enemies. In his Byronic poem, 'The Last Canto of Childe Harold's Pilgrimage,' he had exclaimed against Italy:

" Je vals chercher ailleurs (pardonne, ombre romaine!) Des hemmes et non pas de la poussière humaine."

He certainly had forgotten these lines when Colonel Pepe, a Neapolitan exile who lived in Florence, denounced them in a very offensive pamphlet. A duel followed this attack on Lamartine. The poet had received a kick from a horse, and was confined to his bed, but he wrote to Pepe, who insisted upon waiting till he was quite well, that he would not wait, and would meet him the next day. The duel took place in the neighborhood of Florence. Virieu was Lamartine's second. The fight lasted only a few minutes; Lamartine was wounded in the arm, but soon recovered. He became a lion in Florence, notwithstanding the verses which had irritated Pepe. Lamartine still held the post of Secretary of Legation under the Marquis de la Maisonfort. He spent most of his time riding on the beautiful slopes of the Apennines or writing poetry. He tried his hand at a great epic poem, and it is fortunate that he did not persist in his project of celebrating the virtues and the victories of King Clovis in twenty cantos. This poem, according to the plans set forth in the correspondence, was to be longer than the poems of Homer, Dante, and Milton put together. He abandoned this project, and wrote the 'Poetic and Religious Harmonies,' which are wonderfully fine—as beautiful as the 'Meditations,' but not so well condensed. The 'Harmonies' have no limitation; they offer to the mind the vision of an endless sea of images, of metaphors, of thoughts. This want of precision was the capital defect of Lamartine's mind. He was essentially a lyric poet, and the caprice of his imagination drew him in every direction. His sentimental overflow becomes at times wearisome; beauty lies in measure, whether we express it in architecture, in the fine arts, or in poetry; and Lamartine had no measure-he was a spendthrift in every sense of the word.

He became tired of remaining in a subordinate position in the Foreign Office, and as he inherited the large fortune of two of his uncles, he left Florence in 1:28 and returned to France. He found the political world convalsed with the change of cabinet; the liberal Martignac was replaced by Polignac; and Lamartine wrote to his friend Virieu: "I believe now in the possibility of a revolution which will sweep away the dynasty; I did not believe it yesterday." He asked, however, the post of First Secretary at London, or of Minister to Athens. He was refused, but found consolation for his pride in his nomination to the French Academy in November, 1829.

Very soon afterwards he lost his mother, who burned herself frightfully in a bath, as she allowed the hot water to flow too rapidly and could not stop it. She died after the most painful illness, and Lamartine buried her at Saint Point. She was the great, perhaps the only profound, passion of his life; he writes about her to Virieu letters which have a tone of sincerity and of depth which is not often found in his effusions. He returned to Paris for the ecremony of his reception in the Academy. He was received by Cavier, who had been elected a member of the French Academy, though his claims to celebrity were chiefly scientific. Lamartine had to make the eulogy of his predecessor, Count Daru, who had been a high functionary of the First Empire: he improved the opportunity to express his political sentiments. He felt already drawn from the quiet field of politics to the stormy atmosphere of party conflicts. "From this century," he said, "will date our double restoration: restoration of liberty by the throne, and of the

throne by liberty. The century will bear the name either of the legislator-king who has consecrated the progress of our time in the *charte*, or of the gentleman-king whose word is a *charte*, and who will preserve for his posterity this perpetual gift of his family. These words will be better understood if we remember that they were proncunced almost on the eve of the Revolution of 1830; Lamartine was a Royalist, but a Constitutionalist at the same time. His advice was thought too haughty, and the Court party became very angry with the new Academician.

He left Paris in great uneasiness of mind, after having published the 'Harmonies,' which were received by the public with as much enthusiasm as the 'Meditations.' He was at Aix when he heard the fatal news of Polignae's ordonnances. The revolution which he had almost prophesied took place. "There it is," he writes to Virieu; "if it crosses our front ers, all is over in Europe; it will be like the universal deluge, without an ark. Happily, between the revolution and ourselves there is an improvised government, fortified with all the wishes of the middle classes, with good institutions. This shows the way for all honest men. Anything rather than anarchy, than a stupid and hideous complicity with enemies who would devour themselves after having devoured us. My conscience tells me that as long as one can fight for one's country, for the principles saved in the wreck of a crown, one must do it, and not enquire whether the flag has one color or three colors, whether whatever remains of mouarchy, of liberty, of religion, of stability, is called Peter or Paul. I shall consequently accept any function which well-thinking men may give me in the Parliament or anywhere else." He sent in his resignation, however, but in his letter confessed himself ready to take the oath to the new government. Such was the conduct of an intelligent Royalist of 1830; why was it not the conduct of all Legitimists; and why, even now, is a great fraction of the Legitimist party not inspired by these noble sentiments? There are many who deplore the suicidal conduct of the Comte de Chambord, but there are none who dare to speak in favor of a Liberal monarchy, like the monarchy of 1830. They will follow Caambord, even though he ruins their cause and the cause of the

Lamartine was very severe in 1830 on the Republicans. It is true that the Republicans were then few in number; that they had no means of controlling the Government but barricades or the threat of rebellion. His friend Virieu was a Royalist of the chevau-léger type. He would not accept any part of the principles of 1798. Lamartine thought that these principles were not incompatible with monarchical institutions, and expressed this view in his 'Politique rationelle.' His letters to Virieu at that time are very interesting. He kept aloof, and was somewhat shy of accepting office; he did not give complete satisfaction to any party; he was not advanced enough for the men who were in power immediately after the Revolution; he seemed much too advanced to his old friends. He offered himself for election at Bergues, but he was not returned, and started for the East in 1832 on a ship which he had chartered for himself. His journey has been written by himself, and I will say nothing about his 'Voyage en Orient.' To me, Lamartine is always unsatisfactory as a prose writer.

He returned to France in 1833, was elected Deputy, and then his political career really began. It is perhaps a pity that he ever embarked his graceful muse in the sea of politics and did not remain a poet to the end. Posterity will always remember the 'Meditations,' while he could not save the Republic of 1848 from a speedy destruction.

Correspondence.

DISTRICT REPRESENTATION.

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TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a well-written communication in the last number of the Nation, I was surprised to see the following passage: "If the malcontents could have invited a distinguished candidate from another part of the State, they would have had even a better chance, because a man of ability only excites jealousies in his district which, on the principle of omne ignotum pro magnifico, a stranger would avoid. In like manner, a man who wishes to promote a measure of public importance has no chance unless he can persuade his district; whereas, if he could canvass the State himself or by his friends, he might find a constituency to appreciate him. In England, for these reasons, no such thing as a cancus is known."

The Constitution of the United States, Article I., Section 1, clause 2, declares, "No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not when elected be an inhabitant of the State in which he shall be chosen," etc. Can there be any doubt that every consti-

thency and State has the right already to do what your correspondent deems so desirable? Judge Story says the States can add nothing to the qualifications prescribed by the Constitution. Besides the weight of his authority, his argument is, I think, unanswerable. ('Story on the Constitution,' sections 624 to 629 inclusive.)

In 1790, the celebrated Wm. Pinkney of Maryland was elected to Congress from a district other than that in which he lived. His election was contested upon the ground of his non-residence. A law of the State required such residence. He appeared in the House of Representatives, and argued the question. The House decided in his favor. He thereupon resigned, that he might give all his time to his profession. (Wheaton's 'Life of Pinkney,' 7.)

Want of time forbids my pursuing the subject further. I agree with your correspondent as to the importance of the principle. It is earnestly to be hoped that ere long the experiment will be tried in more than one district. If successful, it cannot fail to exert a purifying effect upon our national tics, and to promote the well-working of our national polity.

A.

AN INCONVERTIBLE CURRENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your criticism on Mr. Kelley's "Inconvertible Currency last week, you say:

"We ought to add that the principle of Kelley's bill received the support of Mr. Wendell Phillips, in a letter to the Hon. B. F. Bur which he recommended unlimited loans to the Government of new money, at four per cent. if we remember rightly, to all citizens at for it on the security of mortgage on real estate. We confess our prefor Mr. Phillips's plan, though we say this without meaning to dep Judge Kelley's. Our firm belief is that the former would make plentier in the United States than it ever was in any country in the and possesses the grand merit of extreme simplicity. In one mont the issue of the greenbacks, or as soon thereafter as 'the papers' comade out, every foot of this vast continent would, in fact, be mortg the United States."

We have no wish to depreciate the plan of Mr. Phillips, but we share your belief that it "would make money plentier in the Unite than it ever was in any country in the world." His plan is defective fact that the Government is to exact mortgage security for its issues the currency, being convertible into land, would still have too great chasing power, and would still be inconveniently scarce.

It has been reserved for the upassisted genius of the African rac tropical exuberance, to develop a truly inconvertible currency be eyes, in the model Republic of Hayti. On our way home from Sa mingo, with the United States Commission, some three years ago, w Port-au-Prince, and found the system of inflation in full operation the landing we were told that specie was no longer in use [except am importers], and that it would be necessary to exchange our gold an for "the money of the Republic."

Accordingly, we repaired to the store of Mr. Hepburn, an enterprising colored American, and requested the equivalent of a gold dollar. To our amazement the clerk presented us with a huge pile of notes, the Haytian greenbacks, quite too voluminous for convenient transportation in so warm a climate. This pile contained \$390, the rate of exchange that day being 390 for 1. We promptly reconsidered our request, and substituted for our gold dollar a silver half-dollar, and for this we received \$195 in "the Republican currency."

Feeling naturally elated by our unexpected opulence, we invited several of our American friends to accompany us to the market-place, and there treated them, with reckless generosity, to many luscious varieties of tropical fruits. We afterwards spent two days in rambling about the ruinous old city, indulging our fancy by purchases of palm-leaf baskets, melon-seed necklaces and bracelets, walking-sticks, etc. Yet, would you believe it, Mr. Editor, after paying for all these I still retain in my possession \$120, the unspent remainder of my silver half-dollar, and am tempted to make another risit to that genial clime ere long, for the purpose of revelling in luxury with the ample means at my command.

Of course this pleasant picture has its sombre shades, upon which our unprincipled hard-money monopolists might dwell. For instance, all imported goods, clothing, flour, salt-fish, domestics, etc., have to be paid for in gold. How these products of civilization can ever be paid for at all by the poor women who throng the market-place with their heavy loads of fruit, and vegetables, and coffee, carried upon their heads in wooden bowls or baskets, over mountain paths, often twenty miles or more, is a mystery explained perhaps by their half-naked and wholly barbarous condition. Strauge to say, they do not fully appreciate their blessings, for every new issue of papermoney, putting up gold to a still more exorbitant premium, is followed by a political revolution. Nor does the system of inflation stimulate domestic

manufactures, for there are none. It does not develop public improvements, for everything is falling into decay. Probably the system has not yet had time to operate, since it has only been in existence about seventyfive years. Moreover, the currency, having still a little purchasing power left, may not yet be sufficiently abundant in Hayti.

The advantages of the Haytian system over that of our timid American inflationists consists simply in this—it is the logical application of the same principle. The "national credit" of Hayti is pledged to the eventual repayment of its currency, which was originally at par with gold. Every acre of land, every pound of coffee and sugar, are pledged "in a certain fine sense" for its redemption. But the Haytian Government are too enlightened to embarrass their citizens by taking mortgages upon individual estates, as the half way plan of Mr. Phillips proposes, or by levying taxes, which the citizens would find it inconvenient to pay. When the rulers of Hayti need money they simply issue more paper, and leave the gold market to take

Eugene J. Hall; and a volume of poems called 'Across the Sea,' are aunounced by Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago.—The Paris Polybiblion will hereafter be issued in such a way that its bibliographical and literary departments will be entirely distinct, and may be subscribed for separately.—A special number of Trübner's American and Oriental Literary Record is devoted to a full report of the International Congress of Orientalists held in London in September.—Mr. E. C. Gardner, the sprightly author of 'Homes, and How to Make Them,' which we lately reviewed, has begun in the Springfield Republican a new series of papers on 'Country Houses.' They will be illustrated with plans, and will furnish estimates of cost. The first paper is about "The House the Judge Built."

-The most noticeable article in the Historical and Genealogical Register for October is the Hon. George Sheldon's examination of the tradition about the attack on Hadley, Mass., and the appearance of Gen. Goffe, Sept. 1, 1675. Almost everybody must be familiar with this cherished New England legend in its fully developed form. The people of Hadley, it is related, were assembled in church on the above date (or, according to one version, in the following June) when they were suddenly beset by Indians and thrown into the greatest consternation. They were saved by the timely appearance among them of a venerable man, of commanding presence, who gave directions like one versed in military tactics, and led them against the Indians, who were completely routed. When the engagement was over it was found that the unknown captain had vanished as mysteriously as he had come upon the scene, and the belief prevailed that he was an angel in disguise, providentially sent for the salvation of the town. Years afterward it transpired that he was no other than Gen. Goffe, one of the regicide judges, who, with his colleague William Whalley, was at that time concealed in the house of the Rev. John Russell, of Hadley. Mr. Shelden traces this interesting story back to Increase Mather, who first, in 1677, in narrating the events of King Philip's war, alluded to a violent alarm at Hadley lasting two days. Hutchinson, in 1764, converted the alarm into an attack, and added "an anecdote handed down through Gov. Leverett's family," which is the Goffe legend minus the embellishments of subsequent historians. President Stiles, of Yale College, thirty years later, supplied the drama with the "angel" property, and topographical and other details of the fighting were by-and-by invented to give local color to the scene. Hutchinson thus appears as the sole authority for this striking incident in the life of Goffe; but though he had access to Goffe's diary, giving a full account of the wanderings, escapes, and concealments of the judges, he had to resort to the Leverett anecdate not only to prove Goffe's participation in the fight, but that there was any attack on Hadley at all in 1675. The silence of contemporary historians (including the officially commissioned Hubbard) and letter-writers is shown by Mr. Sheldon to deprive the alleged attack of every vestige of plausibility; and the recorded movements of troops in and about Hadley two days after the supposed fight confirm the writer in his conclusion that the town may have en alarmed, as Mather wrote, but not molested by the Indians.

-In the death of Dr. Abraham Geiger, the distinguished and Oriental scholar, progressive Judaism loses one of its foremost champions. Among the many tributes paid to his memory, the most noticeable is that in the Berlin Gegenwart by Berthold Auerbach, a lifelong friend and admirer of the deceased. Zunz and Geiger may be regarded as the most eminent representatives of the new epoch in the history of Judaism which commenced with Moses Mendelssohn; and Geiger received his stimulus from the standard works of Zunz, who survives him. Auerbach passes but lightly over the numerous works of Geiger, the most important of which are: 'Lehrund Lesebuch zur Sprache der Mischna," 'Urschrift und Uebersetzungen der Bibel in ihrer Abhängigkeit von der innern Entwickelung des Judenthums, and 'Das Judenthum und seine Geschichte,' and lays particular stress on the merits of Geiger as a reformer and a rabbi. He does not, however, do justice to the important services rendered by Geiger at the rabbinical conferences at Brunswick, Frankfort, and Breslau, which were brought about mainly by his exertions. Geiger was born on the 24th of May, 1810, at Frankfort-on-the-Main. He studied at the universities of Heidelberg and Bonn, and early attracted attention by a prize-essay on the 'Hebrew Element in the Mohammedan Religion.' In 1835 he founded the learned Zeitschrift für jüdische Theologie, which he successfully published at Breslau, Frankfort, and Berlin. His fame as a Biblical critic rests chiefly on his 'Urschrift und Uebersetzungen der Bibel,' but he embodied the fruits of his critical researches in various monographs and essays, the merits of which were universally acknowledged, among others by Renan in his 'Vie de Jésus.' In 1838 he became a rabbi at Breslau, and filled that position for twenty-five years, carrying into practice his reformatory efforts, in spite of strong opposition. After having been several years at the head of the Jewish congregation in Frankfort, he accepted, in 1869, a call as rabbi at Berlin, and held this office until his death, on the 25th of October. In the last year of his life, a long-cherished hope—the establishment of a faculty for the science of Judaism—was realized, and he was acting as professor in the new *Hock-schule* at the time of his death.

-The Revue des Deux Mondes for August 1 contains the second of the series of papers by M. Fustel de Coulanges upon the "Origin of Feudality" (see the Nation, No. 440). The first treated of the tenure of land, this takes up the other of the two fundamental elements of the feudal system-the personal relation, especially as exemplified in the usage of "commendation." This, like Prof. Roth, he traces to the Roman "patronage," as developed in the later Empire, especially in relation to the freedmen, so that here his views are not so much at variance with those of this distinguished German as upon the subject of land. M. de Coulanges is well-known as a violent hater of the Germans, and we suppose that this is the reason that he takes no notice of Roth's views, which is a pity, for on several points be differs from him, and we should have liked to see his reasons. Perhaps the most striking single point in the article is the classification, at the beginning, of the various forms of government. "These can all be referred," he says, "to three groups: first, those derived from the family-the clan, the tribe; second, those which are founded upon the principles of political association—the state, as we understand it; third, those in which the bond is that of a perpetual and voluntary relation of obedience-of this the feudal system is the most striking and complete example." Probably nothing will show more forcibly than this analysis the mistake of those who apply loosely the name "feudal" to every ruling aristocracy-the Highland clans, for example, and the Russian and Polish nobility; both of these belong to the first class, and are totally devoid of the genuine feudal principle.

-The savages who more or less unwittingly have brought about the exsting state of tension between China and Japan, have suddenly become interesting subjects of ethnological enquiry. They inhabit the precipitous eastern slopes of Formosa, the land of the camphor-tree, which the Chinese colonists, in their encroachments, steadily cut down without restocking. In the northeast the aboriginal Pepos, or, as they call themselves, Kabaran, have ecome semi-civilized, and live in close contact with the Chinese, though requently imposed upon and ill-treated. They are a fine-looking race, with yes much fuller and larger than those of the Chinese, and live mostly by ishing and hunting. They cultivate the soil a little, and make their own loth and other articles in a primitive fashion, and act as intermediaries in he traffic between their wilder brethren and the Chinese, who carry on beides a desultory but unsparing warfare. The savages proper are much less ntelligent and open in appearance, and in fact bave "a suspicious, sinister. logged look." Their natural want of comeliness is heightened by tattooing, which in the case of the women serves to mark the successive ages of their levelopment-a custom not without obvious advantages. At six or eight ears of age every child must have its eye-teeth knocked out, as a means of ensuring speed and wind in hunting, the effect of this upon the whole tribe being anything but agreeable. They are more easily propitiated by the present of a pig than in any other way; they roast the animal in his bristles. and hardly allow him to be warmed through before cutting him up for division. They are so fond of cayenne peppers that for the sake of them they make frequent raids on the Chinese gardens. Tobacco they cultivate, under name (ta-ba-ku) derived either from the Dutch or Spanish colonists, and smoke incessantly, even to the women and children. In pledging friendship "each man puts his arm around the other's neck, and then, placing their heads and mouths close together, they both drink wine at the same time from one cup." Of the fleas with which this country is infested, it has been said that "were the hasty Japanese only willing to abide the course of time. they might safely leave to the operation of natural selection, or the 'survival of the fittest,' the extermination of the savages who seem to be giving then so much trouble." Such is the humorous view entertained by Mr. Edward C. Taintor, of the Chinese Customs Service, in a paper read last June before the Royal Asiatic Society at Shanghai, from which we have taken the for going account of the aborigines. In an appendix he gives a consideral vocabulary of the Kabaran (Pepo) and Yukan (savage) dialects of nort eastern Formosa, in comparison with corresponding words in Malay at other languages of the Archipelago. A similar but less extended comparis has been published in the China Review for July.

SHEPHERD'S HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.*

TEACHERS have been some time asking for a manageable manual history of the English language, and a good many of them will find Profession Shepherd's book to be just about what they want. It has 227 pages, in large type, and it gives a good general account of the whole subject. The author

^{*} The History of the English Language from the Teutonic Invasion of Britain's the close of the Georgian Bra. By Henry E. Shepherd, Professor of the English Language and English Literature, Baltimore City College. New York: E. J. Hale & Son. 1874.

is familiar with the latest English works, and he has been over the ground

A language has its physiological side, and its biographical. The growth of the grammatical forms, and words, and idioms, and permanent rhetorical and poetical powers is a sort of physiological matter; the actual use of these powers in the works of particular authors is biographical. Professor Shepherd tries to present both of these sides of the English lauguage: the growth mainly in the early times, the literary achievements mainly in the later periods. In this his book differs from the histories of Professor Hadley and Dr. Morris. They are mainly physiological histories of the structure of the language. Professor Shepherd is thus able to give a much more accurate general outline than Dr. Morris. A view of the English inflections alone shows the language going through an unbroken succession of losses of form from the earliest Anglo-Saxon to the present, and Dr. Morris presents this continuous decay as the essential history of the English language. The more comprehensive method of Professor Shepherd enables him to use the distinction between mere dialectic talk and classic language with its standard ideals and literary use, and to show us first Anglo-Saxon growing to be a classic speech, and then degenerating and disintegrating into dialects, and afterwards classic English growing up from one of these dialects. This general presentation is truthful and vigorous, and is the main thing that is needed in such an outline. It is filled up with interesting and important details, and the book invites and deserves the widest use. And it is worth improving when it comes to new editions. It is perhaps in the nature of such a book that it needs a history of literature to go with it or before it; it must take for granted more or less general knowledge of the authors whose language is discussed; but still enough ought to be said about the leading authors to make all clear which is said about their speech, and sometimes a little more: the authors who are most important in the history of language sometimes escape the notice of those who make manuals of literature. Robert of Brunne, for example, is a great name for the linguist, and drops in like an old acquaintance who needs no introduction in Professor Shepherd's eleventh chapter, but it might puzzle all the learned in many a learned neighborhood to find out who he was. Piers Plowman is talked about for a whole chapter, but a definite statement of the subject and contents of the work is to be sought elsewhere. Attention to this matter throughout by footnotes or otherwise would improve the book.

The greatest danger of such an outline is the fatal facility of glittering generalities. It seems as though these must be said, and they crowd out facts and illustrations. Professor Shepherd has not been seduced by glitter. but sometimes he lets generalities stand too much alone. Euphuism, for example, has a formal discussion as a characteristic feature of Elizabethan English, but all is general description. The citation of a passage or two is needed to give it definiteness and vividuess. In the grammatical part a similar defect appears. Thus on page 23: "With respect to its (Auglo-Saxon) grammar, it is sufficient to say that it had five cases; that the article, noun, adjective, and pronoun were declinable, having different forms for three genders and two numbers." etc., etc. There are no paradigms, or even tables of endings, and all explanations of changes in these endings in the after parts of the book are apt to be defective for want of precise knowledge of the original endings. Indeed, the grammatical part of the book, though altogether above comparison with the scraps from the feast of lauguages which our common school-books parade as English philology, is not its strong point. Too much reliance has been placed on English editors and critics who are literary men rather than scientific grammarians. There are no "six declensions," for example, in Anglo-Saxon. That was a fancy of Rask. which would have been forgotten for a generation if the amateurs had not kept repeating it. The future in shall does not first occur in Layamon; there are examples enough of it in ancient Anglo-Saxon. So of other anxiliaries; so of the articles. It is odd how long-lived negative statements about such words are. That there are only two teuses in Anglo-Saxon, no proper auxiliaries, no passive voice, no articles, is repeated over and over by good scholars. With many it is merely a logical conundrum. They define tenses to be variations of one word; and so count out all forms of expressing time which are printed as two or more words. This has its odd side, since all tenses are made by putting separate words together, and it would seem to make no very great difference whether an expression be printed as one word or two. If the French chanterai is a future tense, printing it chanter ai ought not to curtail the fair proportions of the French verb, nor does there seem to be any very profound reason for saying that the Latin verb has no perfect passive because the combination of the passive stem with fui is printed in two words, amatus fui, and that it has a perfect active because the combination of the active stem with fui is printed as one word, amari; that it has a present passive because the compound amo-r is made one word, and has no perfect passive because the compound is there printed as

two words. A Japanese phonographic reporter who should take down as English airlurd, aimaitarlurd, aimlurd, would do all that is needed to fill out our paradigm with modes and tenses and voices of the right sort. Professor Shepherd, in common with many other good scholars, has this way of speaking of there being only two tenses in English, and though we do not like it, we should hardly think of asking him to change it.

He should, however, enumerate and define the auxiliaries. And now, as to auxiliaries, they all were originally independent words, and became auxiliaries by acquiring some secondary dependent use, followed by the gradual loss of their former meaning. A grammarian may refuse to recognize a word as an auxiliary as loug as it retains any of its original meaning. It must be on some such ground that well-informed persons deny the use of shall as a future sign in Anglo-Saxon. It meant owe, must, ought, and something of this meaning may be found or fancied in almost any sentence in which it occurs. This is no good reason for denying it to be a future sign; it makes it that and something more. But pure enough futures are to be found in Anglo-Saxon. Take those in the Gospels where a Latin future is rendered in one translation by a simple future, in another by shall, or will, Matthew i. 23 reads in Latin, Virgo in utero habebit, a virgin will conceive; in Anglo-Saxon the future habebit is rendered in one version sceal habba, in others haefth. So, in Matthew v. 46, quam mercedem habebitis is rendered by sciolun habba and habbaet; while a first person, Quid manducabimus, what shall we eat, has walla ue catta, will we eat, interchanging with the simple ete wê, Matthew vi. 31, and so on through the Gospels. The glossaries and late Anglo-Saxon grammars refer to pages of these auxiliaries in Beowulf, Cædmon, and the old literature, which he who runs may read, and question if he can.

Something similar may be said of the article an, which Professor Shepherd ascribes to a later age. It means one, with weakened emphasis and definiteness of various degrees; but where it is added in translating an indefinite Latin word, and must be translated into English as an and not one, it ought to pass for an article. In Luke iii. 22, for instance (the Holy Ghost descended like a dove), the Latin is sicut columba ; the Greek has no article ; the Anglo-Saxon has in one version suclee culfra, in another swa du culfre.

Professor Shepherd not only gives a history of our grammatical forms, but also of the accumulation of our words, an interesting and valuable account, with lists of words from each source, and with dates. Here, too, he sometimes gives undue weight to general considerations as compared with linguistic evidence. He accepts a long list of Anglo-Saxon words as derivatives from Latin of the first Roman occupation of Britain, and he gives a couple of interesting pages of argument for them in the form of a description of the thoroughness with which the Roman colonies were pervaded by Roman influences and the extent to which they were affected by Roman speech. It is all true in a general way, and we know that the Celts, whom Professor Shepherd prefers to call Kelts, as many other good scholars do, received many words from the Romans; the doubt is whether the Celts transmitted them to the Anglo-Saxous. The linguist would examine the words one by one to find evidence of their history in their forms. The Angle-Saxons had been in immediate contact with Romans and the Latin language long before the Anglo-Saxon was written in which these words are found. To show that they were received from the Celts the proper linguistic proof would be a change of their form according to some peculiar law of the Celtic speech. It would be enough to say of many of the words that there is no trace of any such modification. As to others like acre, yoke, they are common words in the earliest forms we know of all the Northern languages, Low German, High German, Scandinavian; the letters obey the laws of indigenous words in their relations to the Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, and they are in full use in the Gothic centuries before the Anglo-Saxons landed in Britain. General considerations such as Professor Shepherd urges do not weigh a feather against facts like these, at least to a mere linguist, not a Celtomaniac.

Professor Shepherd should not say that "little can be ascertained with regard to the pronunciation of Anglo-Saxon." It is quite well known to a reasonable degree of minuteness. Not to earry our fault-finding further, there are the common oversights of a first edition, slightly varying statements, misprints, and the like, of which the worst is the use of a sort of p for the Anglo-Saxon th. And the book needs and deserves an index.

CHILDREN'S HOLIDAY BOOKS.*

THE preface to 'Happy-Day Stories' announces that the thirty large illustrations have appeared once before, accompanied by poems from the pens of well-known writers, and that they were so well received by the pub-

* 'Happy-Day Stories for the Young. By H. W. Dulcken, Ph.D. With thirty full-page pictures by A. B. Honghton. Engraved by the Brothers Dalziel.' London and New York: Geo. Routledge & Sons.

lie as to induce the publishers to offer them to it a second time, and on this occasion explained by stories instead of poems. The result is one of those hardsome books for children in which the English excel all others, and which make the parents of the present generation inclined to sigh over the barrenness of their own youthful privileges. When doctors of philosophy write stories for little folks under ten years, as in the present instance, and the first artists and engravers make pictures for them, and all three parties perform their task with that knowledge of juvenile needs and desires and sympathy with them that belong to the enlightenment of the present age, it leaves nothing to be desired except that their work be widespread. The only drawback to the enjoyment of the pictures is the costuming of the women and little girls, which, as some homely subject said of his excellent photograph, "is horrid like." Now that big hoops have passed out of fashion, it shows the pity of copying them, except in the interest of history, in work good enough to earn some permanence. But the big hoops are scarcely worse than the hideous bairdressing and cut and trimming of the dresses, which are all faithfully true to the female fashions of Albion.

'Paws and Claws' is the happy title of another handsome English book, containing large and mostly well-drawn pictures of the "clever creatures" whose histories, in the form of facts and anecdotes, are woven together in a humorous and well-told story. The print and paper in this, as in 'Happy-Day Stories,' are noticeably good. Children will get both pleasure and information out of a book like this.

The contents of 'Talks with Girls' are tolerably well foreshadowed in the preface, in which the author says that it has been her "aim to avoid moralizing in a way that excludes sympathy. We can all be loved into a better mind and sweeter temper when dry, cold counsel is of little avail. It is impossible for me to tell you how tenderly my heart goes out toward struggling, aspiring girls through difficulties their strong, broadshouldered brothers are not called on to meet. I have tried to look on all sides of girl-life, and not let one set of sympathies stifle the rest." The essays are "About Giving Up," "About Making the Best of Things," "About Teasing," "About Romping," "About Helping," "About Hindering," and about thirty-five other equally well-chosen subjects, making in all 349 compact pages, mostly of advice, lightened by an occasional anecdote. A set of sensible and conscientious essays like these, if a trifle heavy, and containing but little not equally well and better said elsewhere, is such a vast improvement on the Sunday-school literature ordinarily offered to the young, that we ought to feel thankful for them, and wish them to drop as seed in uncultivated places, where, if there be any soil at all, they must surely take root and produce good fruit. All motherless, friendless, poor, and untaught girls would be the better for the volume. For the more fortunate classes, it suggests certain objections. In the first place, there is too much of it. To read unlimitedly in a book of good advice is almost as bad as to do the same by a book of jokes: the impression soon becomes weak; capacity for assimilating the one or for laughing at the other departs. Therefore, they who have wise friends who can give them a little at a time will do better to get their instruction orally. Then there are the dangers of so much special preaching as girls, or boys, or young men, or young women, or workingmen, or the rich, or the poor are subject to nowadays. Miss Tytler, Gail Hamilton, and many others have written pages of counsel for girls, all of which is very well as far as its being true in itself goes, but which forces upon the always lively self-consciousness of girls the notion that they are a separate and peculiar class; that truthfulness, honesty, good-breeding, thoughtfulness, or any other of the virtues, is not the same for one and all, but has a special meaning for them, or a different application. Gay and thoughtless girls are not to be caught by a book of sage lecturing, full of truisms; and the other kind, who are always probing themselves-either in the line of self-coudemnation or self-laudation-do not need it. To keep self out of the minds of our precocious youth of both sexes is, in fact, the greatest of all desiderata. And finally, we would beg to ask a number of very good people if there is not danger of the "law of love" being overdone? We say nothing with a desire to strengthen the hands of the old spare-the-rod-and-spoil-thechild school; but among those of advanced education, who have "seen their way out of" the force system, there is certainly too great a tendency to "encourage" or "love into the right path" all young people indiscriminately. It is assumed that growing Americans will not give ear to any masculine, hardy, vigorous, or stern assaults on their weaknesses. You must, if you want to be heard, first "sympathize" with them to the degree of reducing yourself to their level, assuming their faults and adopting their temptations, admitting the hardness of their ease and pitying them for the struggle that awaits them. To show them that you are of a

'Paws and Claws. Being True Stories of Clever Creatures, Tame and Wild. By one of the authors of 'Poems Written for a Child.'' London, Paris, and New York: Ca-sel, Petter & Galpin.
'Taiks with Girls. By Augusta Larned.' New York: Nelson & Phillips; Cincinnati: Hitchcock & Walden.

many of their elders, parents or teachers, who have erred in being "repressive" and habitually inconsiderate of the "natural feelings" of the youngbeings who have actually compelled obedience without first persuading the subject why it was exacted of him. . Miss Larned says, for instance: "Intelligent children are very quick to discover the weaknesses of grown people." "Parents and teaches and all others in authority should be very careful about refusing, and never do it without good and sufficient reason." "There is an admirable old story . . . which deserves to be written in letters of gold," that, namely, of the two monks who did penance by putting dried peas in their shoes. "When the one who limped asked the other who walked with ease how he could do so, 'Oh!' said he, 'it is simple enough; I boiled my peas.' Now, dear girls, learn to boil your peas and then you will not feel them." This, strange as it may appear, is intended to illustrate the meeting of the "little evils" of life by "patience and good-nature"; whereas the "pious" monk did what over-refined and excessive tenderness actually does also, whips the devil around the stump, and takes all the fibre out of self-depial, and all the education out of hardship. 'Risen from the Ranks' is the first story of Mr. Horatio Alger's we re-

just and impartial spirit, and do not bear down on them out of mere fond-

ness for criticism, you must point out how thoroughly you disapprove of

member to have read. It is so plainly a "specimen brick" that going through it seems to make one familiar with the whole "series" of 'Brave and Bold,' 'Luck and Pluck,' which, we learn from the publisher have found a ready sale. The advertisement says further that such 'stories exert a healthy influence, and are of immense service to ambitious boys anxious to make their mark in the world." Such a claim for 'Risen from the Ranks' and its popularity make considering it worth while. Briefly, the story is this: Harry Walton is the son of a New Hampshire farmer, who from laudable motives (he never has any other kind) goes out into the wide world. Benjamin Franklin is his hero; he determines to be a printer, and goes into the service of the Centreville Gazette. His conduct here is of the highest order; he is under all circumstances cheerful, industrious, stainless. His amusements are innocent. Shunning the evil courses of the other apprentices, he spends one evening with an excellent fellow popping corn. This young gentleman belongs to the "first circles of Boston," and teaches Harry French between whiles. Another evening he spends with a worthy family who teach him how to play checkersgame which requires a certain degree of thought and foresight"—and whose conversation is of this sort:

"How do you like your new business?" asked Mrs. Ferguson, as she handed Harry a cup of tea. "I like all but the name" [Printer's Devil], said our hero smiling. "I wonder how the name came to be applied to a printer's apprentice any more than to any other apprentice," said Mrs. Ferguson. "I never heard," said her husband. "It seems to me to be a libel upon our trade. But there is one comfort. If you stick to the business, you'll oatgrow the name." "That is lucky; I shouldn't like to be called the wife of a--I won't pronounce the word lest the children should catch it." "What is it, mother?" asked Willie with his mouth full. "It isn't necessary for you to know my how" sary for you to know, my boy."

We may save ourselves the trouble of epitomizing the apprentice's subsequent career, as it is very well done in the advertisement, which reads as

"Ambitious to become an editor, he tried his hand at writing 'essays' and 'sketches' for a Boston weekly, which were accepted and widely copied. As local reporter to the Weekly Journal of their office he made a great hit. Sickness called the editor away, and he filled his chair successfully. A chance to buy an interest in the paper was secured by the financial aid of his old friend the showman, and he became the editor, realizing his fondest dreams. He and the newspaper became a power in the district. He consented to run for Congress, and was elected. Still higher honors in time came to him"

It is to be conceded that naturally clever boys, if they are only young enough or ignorant enough-and of the latter there are countless numbers in country districts-do and will absorb this sort of pabulum; and it goes, if they have nothing to counteract it, an appalling way towards forming mental habits. Country newspapers would therefore do themselves and Congress, if both are to be reinforced from "ranks" having such discipline, a real service by satirizing the ambition which only longs for conspicuousness, the love of equality which is for ever considering the difference in "rank" of "merchant princes" in Boston and "retail merchants on Washington Street," the discontent for farming, and the fever to get into the newspapers and "before the people," the ignorance that sets itself up to teach, and the puling virtue which keeps vice at a distance by pop-corn and checkers and vainglorious spouting at a "debating society."

^{&#}x27;Risen from the Ranks; or, Harry Walton's Success. By Horatio Alger, jr., author of 'Ragged Dick,' 'Tattered Tom,' 'Luck and Pluck,' 'Brave and Bold 'Series.' Boston: Loring.

Parents will have only to read a short way into 'Rymes and Jingles' to want it, and to read it all through to determine to keep it as a volume of unequalled entertainment for small fry if scarcely less for themselves. It is full of comical wise nonsenseland the most felicitous absurdities of language. It can speak best for itself in the following extracts taken at random; for almost everything is good, and only a few out of the 270 pages really inferior or commonplace.

"Baby Nell had ten little toes,
Baby Nell had two little hose,
She always stared when the hose went on, And thought her ten little toes were gon

The verses to a picture of a very new duckling looking at a broken eggshell, though a trifle disrespectful, will also bear quoting:

"Well, I'm out after all !
And I'll say, on my word, That's a pretty mean house For a duck of a bird! Why, I couldn't stand up, And I couldn't sit down, And I couldn't sit down,
But I lay in a cramp
From my toes to my crown.
My good mammy and dad
May have thought me a poon,
But they'll not get me back
In that thing very soon."

Our lads must still seek instruction in carpenter work from English teachers, and one of the best of these appears to be Mr. Davidson. 'The Boy Joiner ' invites the ambitious young artisan by its clear and simple advice, by its encouraging tone, and by the number of really serviceable articles whose manufacture it describes in detail. In all these respects it has advantages for young beginners over the excellent 'Young Mechanic' reprinted a few years ago by Messrs. Putnam. If the grammar is sometimes a little faulty, and the definitions not always as precise as they might be, on the other hand the language used is not above the pupil's apprehension. 'The Young Mechanic' is much more technical in its style, is addressed, indeed, to older boys, and it holds up a standard of excellence which might make many a poor little fellow despair of success. Mr. Davidson cheers him up at the outset by discrediting the adage that "a good workman can work with bad tools," or, as it is expressed in a more fallacious formula, "it's a poor workman who quarrels with his tools." The best workman, he says, can do best with good tools; and the boy joiner should have the importance of them impressed upon him. We observe but few instances of the use of English terms not current among our mechanics, or not intelligible in themselves. The "American cloth" referred to now and again would probably fail to be recognized by the boys whom we shall recommend to get this book.

Mr. Wood's 'Trespassers' we perhaps err in placing among the books for children. But the writings of this voluminous popularizer of science are generally, so far as our experience goes, while designed for adults, quite accessible to the youthful explorer. In the present case, it may seem doubtful if Mr. Wood's labored though readable introduction could pass muster with anybody out of his teens. It is an apology for the sensational title of the book, or, in other words, for making a new class, of "Trespassers," in the animal kingdom. If our author insists upon this division, he ought to pursue it with works on parasites, on mimicry, etc. What he deals with here is whales, dolphins, seals, the beaver, the hippopotamus, the flying-fish, etc., etc., describing the peculiar structure and functions of each, and indulging plentifully in anecdotes such as every well-ordered boy or girl will find interesting. The pictures are numerous enough to satisfy curiosity, and fairly good as wood-cuts.

Travels in South America. By Paul Marcoy. 2 vols. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1874.)-Among the illustrated gift-books of the season, these sumptuous volumes will certainly take high rank. The maps, the five hundred and twenty-five illustrations (from designs by the author himself), the paper, print, and binding, are irreproachable; the narrative, a skilful specimen of light literature, which would not at first be suspected of being a contribution to science, so much has it the air of having been written for the pure amusement of the reader who is fond of travellers' tales. This illusion is produced in part by M. Marcoy's supreme indifference to dates, so that it is not easy, if it is possible, to discover the year in which he left Ilay, on the Pacific coast, or that in which, a twelvementh and fourteen days later, having crossed the continent of South America, he arrived at Pará. The journey itself is described as the result of a wager with a ship-

captain that our lively Frenchman would reach Pará by land sooner than the latter by sea; and this beginning, which Jules Verne might have adopted for one of his peculiar fictions, prepares one to regard the subsequent narration almost as a realistic invention, finding a proper finale in the loss of the wager, which is Frenchily told, and, one feels inclined to add, Frenchily conceived. M. Marcoy was in South America from 1848 to 1860-at the same time with another explorer of the tributaries of the Amazon, Mr. Bates-and the journey here described took place "many years" after the earlier date. The original account of it first appeared in the Tour du Monde (August, September, 1866), and afterwards in bookform in 1868 (Paris: Hachette); and those who may be tempted to follow the author in still other adventures, in Lower Peru, may consult the abovenamed periodical for 1872. For holiday purposes we need not dwell on the philosophical and other strictly scientific matter of the work before us. M. Marcoy's style has been described as "joyeusement humoristique," and it is also the style of one who is on all occasions and at all hazards an artist, Both characteristics are manifest in the single quotation which we can permit ourselves. The author is sailing along the narrow channel of Brèves :

"This morning, as we passed one of those houses built on piles, I saw through the open window a woman, gaunt and yellow, with unkempt hair and scarcely anything in the shape of clothing, spreading a kind of varnish, with a woollen rag, over a new malogany console. The woman left off her work, and looked at me with an astonished air, to which, perhaps, I replied with a grimace. In fact, there could have been no impropriety or wrong in What was there in the Strait of Brèves, in the midst of one of doing so. What was there in the Stratt of Dieves, the to harmonize with the most splendid landscapes nature had ever created to harmonize with that mummy of a housewife and her bit of mahogany furniture, which she rubbed as assiduously as a soldier polishes his knapsack ?

A History of Germany, from the Earliest Times. Founded on Dr. David Müller's 'History of the German People.' By Charlton T. Lewis. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874. 8vo, pp. 799.)-It is hard to say how much of the credit of this book belongs to Mr. Lewis, for in his preface he refers to other authorities besides David Müller, and would appear to have done a good deal upon it besides mere compiler's work. In any case he deserves high commendation. In so far as the book is a translation, it possesses the great merit that nobody would recognize it to be such; we have not noticed a single case of the bald idiotisms which are so common in translations. In so far as it is a compilation, it shows no signs of patching, but has a plan of its own and a style of its own. And, regarded as an original work, it is scholarly, judicious, and well written. The only fault we have to find with it is that it is a little old-fashioned—that is to say, it does not appear to embody the results of the latest investigations in German history. Mr. Lewis names Ranke among his authorities, and Ranke is no doubt the first living historian; but we doubt whether he has used Ranke's latest works, and of other recent first-class authorities-such as Giesebrecht. Schäffer, Häusser, and Sybel-we find no mention.

It follows that the treatment, although always careful and almost always scholarly, is not always equally good. On page 19 the account of the early organization of the Gau and Hundred is confused and inaccurate; there was never a count at the head of each hundred. On page 65 it is made to appear that the feudal system was introduced full-blown, name and ali, by Clovis. The title John XXII. is given not merely to the Pope who contended against Lewis IV., but also to the one deposed by the Council of Constance (pp. 278 and 280). This appears to be not a misprint, but a confusion of authorities, as there is a mythical John XVI. in the tenth century who is reckoned in some chronologies but not in others. The electoral dignity is said (p. 436) to have been restored to the Count Palatine by the Peace of Westphalia, from which it would seem that it was taken away from the Duke of Bayaria. In reality a new electorate was created for him. There are some excellent genealogical tables, especially of the houses of Charles the Great and of Hapsburg; it would be well if there were also one showing the connection of the Saxon, Franconian, and Swabian lines of emperors. There are two maps, well drawn, but not easy to use. It is impossible to represent distinctly the divisions of so complicated a country as Germany except by using colors. We can heartily recommend this book to whoever wishes a compendious history of Germany. The criticism which we have made applies only to certain small portions; all the rest is unequivocally good.

Essays on the Languages, Literature, and Religion of Nepal and Tibet: together with further papers on the Geography, Ethnology, and Commerce of those countries. By B. H. Hodgson, Esq., late British Minister of the Court of Nepal, etc., etc. (London: Trübner & Co. New York: John Wiley & Son. Roy. 8vo, pp. xi., 145 and 124.)-Mr. Hodgson will be famous for ever in the history of European knowledge of Buddhism as the diplomatist and scholar who first brought to light the records of the northern

^{&#}x27;Rhymes and Jingles. By Mary Mapes Dodge, author of 'Hans Brinker,',etc.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.

'The Boy Joiner and Model-Maker. By Ellis S. Davidson.' With nearly 200 illustrations. New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin.

'Trespassers: Showing how the Inhabitants of Earth, Air, and Water are enabled to trespass on domains not their own. By Rev. J. G. Wood.' With numerous illustrations. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons.

forms of that religion, and forwarded to Europe those extensive collections which in the hands of Burnouf became so fruitful of valuable results. But he has also himself made contributions of great worth and originality to the literature of the same subject; and it is in order to rescue these from that inaccessibility which is virtual oblivion, that they are here collected in a volume and republished. Their original dates ranging from 1827 to 1857, it will be seen that we have in them no startling novelties; but they are an important point of the acta of their great subject, and it is much to be desired that they meet with that favorable reception which, as promised at the end of the preface, will lead to the publication, in another volume or two, of the venerable author's remaining works. Especially in the ethnology and philology of the Himalayan tribes, Mr. Hodgson has been thus far not only pioneer, but almost sole original investigator; and his opinions on these subjects are, as he lets us know, by no means in accordance with those which other more superficial scholars have drawn from his collected materials. The second part (separately paged) of the present volume deals with There is an index to the volume, but the Himalava and its inhabitants. we wish that it had been made exhaustive, at the cost of two or three times as much space.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NOVEMBER 30, 1874.

THE money-market has been easy, with the rates on call loans, secured by stock collaterals, ranging from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The demand for commercial paper was brisk throughout the week, with a very moderate supply offering; the best names passing readily at 5 to 61/2 per cent., while for paper of a lower grade the demand has been fair at from 7 to 10 per cent., according to the standing of the makers.

Cable advices to-day report that the minimum rate of discount of the Bank of England was raised this morning from 5 to 6 per cent. It would seem that the recent advances made in the Bank rate have been insufficient to prevent the flow of bullion from London to Paris. The amount of bullion withdrawn from the Bank of England during the week ending on Thursday last was £78,000, while the Bank of France gained 8,632,000 francs in specie. On Saturday £207,000 in bullion were drawn from the Bank of England. and to-day the action of the directors was probably precipitated by the prospect of further withdrawals.

The stock market shows strong signs of revival in business. Prices have taken a fresh start, in which, at last, the "Granger stocks" share. Northwestern common was the leading feature during the last two days of the week, advancing to 45% on Saturday from 41½ on Monday. common also advanced 23 per cent. The rest of the market shared more

or less in the advance led by the "Grangers." but that in the latter was by far the most important. To-day the market opened strong, and prices continued to rise; Northwestern going to 46%, Rock Island to 1017, Lake Shore to 81, St. Paul to 39%, Wabash to 32, and Western Union to 81%. Union Pacific was exceptionally dull, the quotations remaining materially unchanged all day.

Government bonds have been active, the advance in gold creating a foreign demand for the former for shipment to the other side, under which prices have advanced from 1/1 to 1 per cent., the greatest rise having been in the 6 per cent. 5-20's of 1867-the popular issue in Europe. The market closed this evening at the following quotations:

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Railroad bonds continue strong, and it is probable that a still further advance in prices will take place when the usual demand sets in about the first of the new year.

The Treasury programme for the month of December provides for the sale of \$2,500,000 gold. During the past week the recent rise in gold has been well maintained; to-day the quotation went up to 1123 upon the change in the English bank rate. Further shipments will be made during the coming week, \$400,000 having been prepared for shipment to-day by to-morrow's steamer. The total specie shipment last week was \$2,183,000.

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